DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 198 388 CE 028 121

TITLE Self-Directed Job Search: An Introduction.

INSTITUTION Employment and Training Administration (DOL),

Washington, D.C.

PUB DATE 80 NOTE 41p.

EDES PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Adults: Career Education: *Economically

Disadvantaged: Employment Interviews: Employment

Programs: *Employment Services: Experiential

Learning: Information Services: Job Application: Job Placement: *Job Search Methods: *Learning Activities:

Program Descriptions: *Program Development: *Skill

Development

IDENTIFIERS Comprehensive Employment and Training Act: Prime

Sponsors

ABSTRACT

This document provides an introduction to a job search training activity -- self-directed job search -- which can be implemented by Private Industry Councils (PICs) or Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) Prime Sponsors. The first section introduces self-directed job search for the economically disadvantaged. The next section describes this planned activity whose purpose is to inform, instruct, and provide practical experience to job seekers in identifying, initiating contact, and interviewing with prospective employers in order to find a job for themselves. In the third section are described three programs which illustrate the activity in operation. Section 4 overviews the basic structure of self-directed job search: information, skill building, and support. Section 5 addresses variables which PICs and CETA Prime Sponsors must consider in electing to implement a self-directed job search program in relation to resources and needs of locality as well as overall employment and training priorities. Limitations of self-directed job search are discussed in section 6. An annotated bibliography of selected job search materials is also provided. The thirteen publications listed deal mainly with the content of job search training, not with the matter of training techniques and procedures. (YLB)

Self-Directed Job Search: An Introduction

U.S. Department of Labor Ray Marshall, Secretary

Employment and Training Administration Ernest G. Green **Assistant Secretary for Employment** and Training 1980



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PREFATORY NOTE

The purpose of this document is to provide an introduction to a job search training activity which can be implemented by Private Industry Councils or CETA Prime Sponsors. This part has been written specifically for the staff of Private Industry Councils and prime sponsor personnel who serve as liaisons for these councils. It may be read with the companion part for Private Industry Council members, which is in effect a summary of this part.

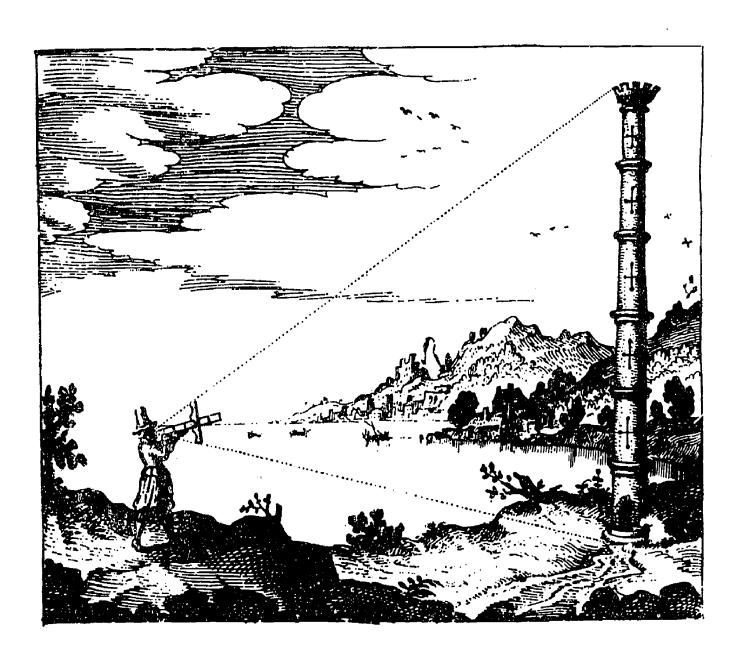
The discussion offers an overview of the basic structure of Self-Directed Job Search training with attention to operational variables which must be examined when planning the implementation of such a program. Three programs have been described briefly in order to illustrate how these factors come together in actual operations. A bibliography of selected job search materials is included for those inclined to further study and investigation.

The information in this document is the result of the input and cooperation of many people. This includes those who shared unpublished papers and perceptive discussion, answered various questions over the telephone and supplied printed materials, made suggestions, and read and critiqued drafts. I wish to thank Robert Wegmann, Bonnie Coe, and Jim Zurer for supplying many of the leads which led to my gathering the information summarized herein. I am particularly indebted to Dr. Wegmann for his helpful discussions. To all I would like to express my sincere appreciation for their interest and assistance, but accept full responsibility for any errors or misinterpretations.

Bart F. Kennedy September, 1980



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Self-Directed Job Search can assist
Private Industry Councils
in realizing two goals of the
Private Sector Initiative Program.



INTRODUCTION

Self-Directed Job Search: An Introduction

The Private Sector Initiative Program, or PSIP, was announced at a White House dinner with business, labor, community, and government leaders in May, 1978. The following month, thirty-four prime sponsors were selected to serve as the vanguard of a start-up phase. Each of the prime sponsors received a \$25,000 planning grant in order to establish Private Industry Councils (PIC) and to provide staff support. In October of that year Congress amended the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) and extended it through Fiscal Year 1982. The "new" CETA included Title VII--the Private Sector Initiative Program--as a vital part in the redirection of the overall employment and training effort for the economically disadvantaged. In order to receive funds under Title VII, prime sponsors were required to establish PICs which would serve as the fulcrum for expanded involvement of the private sector.

Some areas moved very rapidly establishing PICs and implementing PSIP; others moved more cautiously. Proposed PSIP regulations were published in the Federal Register in January, 1979, with the final regulations published three months later. PSIP allocations to prime sponsors for FY-79 began in June, 1979. Many prime sponsors elected to wait until the final regulations were published and until the Title VII allocation was made before initiating implementation procedures.

Title VII authorized a variety of approaches for involving the business community, including the latitude to expend up to 30% of the funds for new activities intended to create or expand employment opportunities for the economically disadvantaged. This latitude is, of course, compatible with the ultimate goal of Title VII:

to increase private sector employment and training opportunities under all Titles of the Act, commensurate with reduced emphasis on public and private non-profit subsidized employment. (679.1(d))

The legislation articulates the ultimate goal according to three major emphases for PSIP:

To increase the involvement of the business community . . . in employment and training activities. (Sec. 701)

To increase private sector employment opportunities for unemployed or

underemployed persons who are economically disadvantaged. (Sec. 701)

To test and demonstrate the effectiveness of a variety of program activities in pursuing the first two purposes. (Sec. 701)

The nature and extent of involvement by the business community is developing in various ways among the approximately 470 PICs across the country. The same is true with regard to the "opportunities" of private sector employment for the economically disadvantaged.

The task before the PICs is to recommend programs and activities to the local prime sponsor which gives concrete expression to the generally stated national goals. Not too surprisingly, this has been a challenging exercise since PICs, in accordance with the demonstration nature of Title VII, have taken seriously the charge to fund relevant and innovative activities. Thus, PICs, their support staff, and prime sponsor personnel have been in the process of appropriately transforming general goals of a national program into specifically operable activities at the local level. This is done neither quickly nor easily. A great deal of effort, thought, and patience is required.

The purpose of this publication is to discuss an activity-Self-directed Job Search--which can assist Private Industry Councils in realizing, at least in part, two goals of PSIP:

To increase private sector employment opportunities for the economically disadvantaged.

To test and demonstrate the effectiveness of a variety of activities.

Self-directed Job Search for the economically disadvantaged is a recent phenomenon. Although the concept has been around for years, its application has been primarily for professionals seeking either a job or career change. This approach to job search for the economically disadvantaged is now gaining growing attention and even acceptance. There is every indication that this number will increase rapidly in the near future.

The growth has been more like a movement than a program. Like most movements it began quietly with local programs, gaining acceptance among interested program operators. They experimented with various activities and exchanged ideas and materials. Eventually several things converged within a short time period which appear to have solidified the movement and provided an impetus to the proliferation of these programs.



The culmination of Dr. Nathan Azrin's work with the WIN population attracted considerable attention. National office WIN staff and policymakers in the Department of Labor were quick to discern the ramifications of his findings and began to explore possible ways of incorporating job search training into the mainline services provided by WIN.

The year following the publication of Dr. Azrin's report on the WIN studies--1979--the revised CETA regulations went into effect. Among other things, the regulations authorized specifically job search training for PSE enrollees under the rubric of transition services. This specificity was the "push" which adventurous prime sponsors needed to offer innovative job search training.

The same year the Charles Hoffman job search model,¹ which had been operating successfully and independently of Azrin and others, was covered on the Bill Moyer's television show. This provided additional credibility and recognition of the concept. Consequently, more individuals were willing, though perhaps still unconvinced, to entertain the idea of self-directed job search as a feasible activity for the economically disadvantaged.

Dr. Robert Wegmann's article on job search assistance published in December of 1979 appears to have expedited the acceptance and establishment of the activity among CETA programs. It certainly riveted the attention of policy makers on the feasibility, perhaps necesity, of job search training for the economically disadvantaged. The article not only pulled together data, facts, and information on selected job search training programs, but also proferred a cogent rationale for their relevance and efficacy.

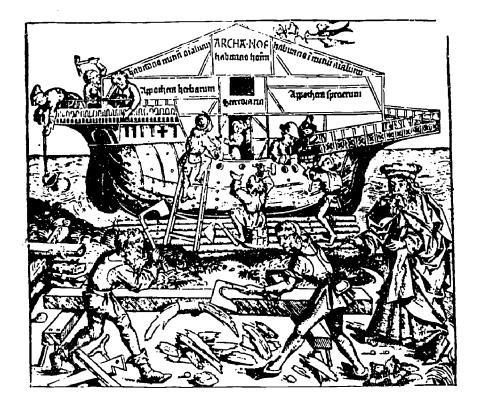
Though self-directed job search has already been established as both a feasible and viable training activity for the economically disadvantaged, exactly why it works are questions awaiting further research. All the theoretical questions or pivotal operational variables have not been delineated systematically. However, the state-of-the-art study in job search training by the U.S. Department of Labor scheduled for completion during the Spring of 1981 will address some of these matters.

The following discussion is not, therefore, an attempt to offer theoretical constructs explanatory of the activity or in any way to delineate a normative position. It is an attempt to introduce PIC staff to the concept of self-directed job search and to present some important variables to consider in operationalizing it.

The fundamental elements of the activity are clear: information; job search skill training; support (broadly construed to include both human and non-human factors). Within these basic elements, the discussion assumes the more important variables of self-directed job search for the economically disadvantaged are a group setting for the training and the staff which provides it. No attempt will be made to justify this except to note it is based upon the author's own experience in self-directed job search training and the general consensus of others operating such programs. With this candid caveat offered here in the beginning, the following discussion is provided in the sincere hope that it will be a useful introduction for those who wish to know more about self-directed job search.



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Self-Directed Job Search is a planned activity which informs, instructs, and provides practical experience to job seekers in identifying, initiating contact, and interviewing with prospective employers in order to find a job for themselves.



SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH²

Across the United States, programs are currently being conducted which provide individuals with information and training to undertake for themselves the task of finding a job. These job search training programs have until recently received little recognition. As a result, the majority of employment and training professionals are unacquainted with these activities. This clearly is understandable in view of the recent origin of such programs for the economically disadvantaged population.

Though comparatively new, these programs have demonstrated a high rate of success in putting people to work in unsubsidized jobs in a minimum period of time at reasonable costs. The reliance upon participants to perform the actual job search is atypical of piacement procedures for the economically disadvantaged. In addition, there does not appear to be any substantial barriers to operating such a program for people from a variety of backgrounds: economic, social, and educational.

The programs are first and foremost a self-help activity. They tacitly, perhaps explicitly, have participants assume primary responsibility for their employment circumstance and expect, require, and equip them to undertake job search in order to find a job for themselves. Participants initiate their own job search activity with appropriate information, encouragement, discipline and support from trained staff. These activities do not just give help; they structure an "environment" which permits people to help themselves. Though the programs may go under various titles and labels, they are SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH efforts.

Self-directed job search is a planned activity which informs, instructs, and provides practical experience to job seekers in identifying, initiating contact, and interviewing with prospective employers in order to find a job for themselves. The job seeker is responsible for identifying and soliciting their own employment through a serious, intensive job search effort. It establishes a dramatic expectation that the participant can and should engage in successful job search. It says to participants, "Help yourself," and thereby create an opportunity for private sector employment.

The expectation of self-help is positioned within an environment of support and positive reinforcement. It provides participants information, instruction, materials, practice and encouragement to undertake self-directed job search. Only a few days of job search training is spent in a classroom setting. Participants actually practice, usually in a group situation, utilizing the information discussed in order to obtain some skill contacting employers and securing an inter
beguent time is devoted to actively looking for a job.

A SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH program generally consists of a small group of participants (10-20 persons) who actively look for unsubsidized employment under the supervision of trained staff. The program typically lasts from two to four weeks. It focuses on developing job leads, penetrating eniployer "screens," interviewing, and following up on interviews. Participants learn to ascertain the ways in which they can be an asset to an employer and, most importantly, how to communicate this effectively during an interview. Having a skill and/or ability which an employer needs and can use is one thing; communicating that to the employer is another. Participants are motivated toward behaviors and attitudes which increase the likelihood of a successful job search.

Usually the first week of the training is devoted to setting a level of expectation on performance, motivation, creating peer support, goal setting, and the many facets of job search itself. Participants are not just informed (talked to); they learn by doing, utilizing a variety of techniques such as role playing and simulations. Feedback tends to be immediate and appropriately constructive in order to facilitate acquisition of job search skills and a positive self-image that builds confidence. Above all, participants actually get out and look for their own jobs. Typically, the majority find a job within four weeks.

Attendance and performance standards are strictly enforced. Persons failing to take seriously their job search are "fired" since their "job" is to find a job. Those who drop out usually do so at the beginning when they discover the program is intensive, requiring a serious effort.

Though theoretically not an essential element of self-directed job search, the group adds a dimension to the activity which makes a qualitative difference in the process and, also, many would argue, in the results. A group of job seekers under proper guidance becomes a dynamic resource from which its members draw ideas, encouragement, support, and challenge. When handled properly, it is peer pressure at its best. Job search is inherently lonely and discouraging under the best of circumstances. In a group setting the task is easier and seems to be a pivotal factor in the overall results.

The expectation of self-help and individual initiative combined with upbeat, positive support and instruction provided by trained staff in a group setting sets Self-Directed Job Search apart from the usual approaches for placing low income or economically disadvantaged persons in jobs. Though the elements of self-directed job search are neither novel nor revolutionary, the dynamics of the process which put them together in an atmosphere of self-help and group interaction have produced significant results. Certainly, this is the conclusion suggested by some of the early self-directed job search efforts.



The expectation of self-help and individual initiative combined with upbeat, positive support and instruction provided by trained staff in a group setting sets Self-Directed Job Search apart from the usual approaches for placing low income persons in jobs.



SOME SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH PROGRAMS³

The Joh Factory

The Job Factory is operated by the Cambridge (Massachusetts) Office of Manpower Affairs (COMA). The program was conceived by consultants to COMA and then developed and operated by COMA staff. It was conducted on a trial basis in 1976 and introduced into the regular service mix of CETA activities in 1977. Since then it has been operated by COMA staff and by the Cambridge Economic Opportunity Committee, a local community action agency, and one of COMA's major sub-contractors.

Barriers to employment among the economically disadvantaged population were studied and the backgrounds of many did not indicate significant hindrances to competing successfully for semi-skilled or unskilled jobs. It appeared that their job search effort was deficient, both in quantity and quality; basically they were ineffectual at helping themselves. The causes for this appeared to be largely superficial; in other words, not rooted in deep psychological or social maladjustment. They seemed to be impeded in their job seeking efforts by some combination of the following factors:

Lack of knowledge of effective methods of finding a job.

Lack of communication skills to present themselves to employers as desirable applicants.

Lack of confidence, drive, realistic job goals, and, perhaps, honest motivation to apply to an intensive job search campaign.

On May 10, 1976, COMA initiated a new job search training activity and called it the Job Factory in an attempt to address these deficiencies. The Job Factory is an intensive workshop of approximately four weeks' duration teaching job search techniques and skills. Participants are enrolled in groups of 10 to 15 people headed by a "foreman" and are expected to follow industry-like work discipline throughout the duration of the program. The participants' "job" is to find themselves a job. Only the first few days are spent in classroom activities. Subsequent time is devoted to intensive (full-time), supervised job search.

The Job Factory provides the tools, materials, and facilities needed in an effective job search along with pertinent formal instruction, training, work planning and close supervite requires satisfactory work performance of participants

and enforces standards with regard to attendance, punctuality and control of work time.

Job Factory facilities include telephones for participants' use, typing and duplicating services, a message center for incoming calls and bulletin board for sharing job lead information. Also, video tape and tele-trair er equipment are used extensively in the development of client self-marketing skills.

During the first week in the program with the directed use of a "work manual" in both group and individual activities, participants develop the "tools" needed for an effective job search. These include: a skills oriented resume or resumes; a clean, accurate standard application form; written references from past employers; letters for solicitation of employers and for follow-up on interviews. Other important materials are provided: Industrial Directories, telephone directory, newspaper want ads, street and transportation system maps, and local labor market information.

Participants are taught the realities of the "hidden job market." Most jobs are not obtained through traditional information sources (newspaper ads, public and private employment agencies); they are obtained through personal contact information or by direct "sales" approaches to prospective employers. Lists of both employer and personal contacts are prepared along with a strategy for penetrating the job market.

Interview skills training includes a consideration of employer motivations, hiring techniques and processes. What qualities is the employer seeking? What is his or her image, in a personal sense, of the ideal candidate for the job opening? How do you describe and project yourself in an interview to match that image?

Considerable training time is spent in mock interviews. Participants present their own actual background to Factory Supervisors who represent hiring authorities. Frequently, participants are asked to perform in the hiring authority role. This reinforces their learning experience and helps sharpen their self-projection skills. Participants must learn to anticipate the questions likely to be asked in an employment interview and to be ready with a positive response.

The bulk of a Job Factory participant's time is spent in actual job search activities: using the telephone to find job prospects, making personal "cold calls" on likely employer organizations, following up on jobs which are advertised or listed with public employment services—all under close supervision of Job Factory staff. On the average, two-thirds of the participants' time is spent in the conduct of these activities.

The positive group dynamics theme of the Factory created during its first days of operation is continued throughout the four week program. Those participants who do not have specifically scheduled interviews or planned employer visits on their agenda return to the Factory at the

end of each day to participate in group discussions encompassing their experiences of that day. Participants engage in a mutual critique and suggestions dialogue based on their actual experiences.

Factory Supervisors do no job development. The participants find their jobs on their own. This seems to be a significant reason for a high job retention rate among former Factory participants. Incomplete but significant follow-up data on former Factory participants indicates an 85% employed rate after one month and a 70% employed rate after one year. By and large, these people got the kind of job for which they had set their sights, and they worked very, very hard to get it. They will not give it up through volition or inadequate performance without second or even third thoughts. They have come to a good understanding of their role and opportunities in the labor market and they have some "faith" that on a practical scale they can realize their potentials.

Between 60 and 70 percent of Job Factory participants have been able to find themselves jobs within the four week period. As of March 1979, the Job Factory had a cumulative 66% placement rate within 30 days of a participant's entrance (159 placed of 241 served at Cambridge and Worcester.) Others have secured employment after the four week period on leads developed in the Job Factory. The average cost per placement is less than \$600.

An abbreviated version of the Job Factory--the Job Shop-- has been used by COMA program agents with PSE enrollees who are completing their service. The program lasts for three weeks. Between October, 1978 and July, 1979, 187 PSE enrollees entered the Job Shop. Of that number, 176 completed it and 77 were employed at the end of three weeks. (See Exhibit 1 for costs associated with the Job Factory.)

EXHIBIT 1

Job Factory Costs

COSTS

(For a Group of 20 Clients)

FIXE	ED COSTS (for one month)			
	Rent (1000 ft²)		\$	450
	Telephone			250
	A/V Equipment Rental			750
	Furniture/Typewriter Rental			100
	Desk Top Supplies			100
	Printing and Xerox			300
	Temporary Secretary (40 hrs.)			200
		TOTAL	\$	2.150
VAF	RIABLE COSTS			
1.	Job Factory (1 month: Average clie after 2.5 weeks)	ent finds work		
	Allowances: (100 hrs. x 2.90 x 20)		\$	5,800
	Support Services @ 2%			100
	Staff (2 for one month)			2,250
	Fixed Costs (above)			2,150
		TOTAL	\$:	10.300
		or \$515/client		
2 .	PSE Workshop (2 weeks)			
	Participant Salaries & Fringe: (\$175 x 2 x 20)		\$	7,000
	Staff (2 for 2 weeks)			1.125
	Fixed Costs (above)			2,150
		TOTAL	\$:	10.275
		or \$514/client		

Also, the Job Shop has been run for a group of CETA II-R eprollees whose assessment indicated a need for such ser-

Source: "The Job Factory"

vice. Almost 80% of the participants found work within two weeks (See Exhibit 2).





EXHIBIT 2

Cambridge Job Shop Performance Title I/IIB Clients October 1978 - June 1979

			PLACED	
SERVED TOTAL: MALE FEMALE WHITE BLACK SPANISH AFDC VETERAN	NO. 147 73 74 79 46 13 7	% of Total 100% 50% 50% 54% 31% >% 5%	NO. 116 56 60 54 42 12 6 5	% of Total 79% 77% 81% 68% 91% 92% 85% 100% 88%
HANDICAPPED EX-OFFENDER	8 3	5% 2%	7 3	100%
AGE 18-21 46-60	28 11	19% 7%	2 5 9	89% 82%

PRE-CETA VS. POST-CETA WAGE CHANGES

Fiscal Year	Pre-CETA Wage	Post-CETA Wage	Difference	
	(Median)	(Median)	\$	%
FY 78	\$ 3.368	\$ 3.566 \$ 3.725	.198 .176	5.9 4.9
FY 79	\$ 3. 54 9	J J.ILJ		

Source: "The Job Factory"

The Job Factory for Youth (JFFY), a two-year program, is currently underway in Cambridge. This was undertaken by COMA at the request of DOL's Office of Research and Development to explore the application of the Job Factory to youth unemployment. It will serve 400 YETP eligible youth. A control group of 400 youth will also be recruited but not served by JFFY for a comparative study by researchers. Of 200 youth involved in JFFY's first year of operation, 67% found work during a four week service period. Follow-up research on both the treatment group and the control group is now being conducted.

The Job Finding Club

The Job-Finding Club was pioneered by Dr. N.H. Azrin, a psychologist, in an experimental study conducted in Carbondale, Illinois. he viewed job search as "a complex sequence of skills which involve social factors, motivational factors, informational factors, and skill factors."³

The general strategy was based upon the realization that job finding is a learnable skill and that many available jobs are never advertised. Dr. Azrin had discovered in previous studies that personal contacts (friends, relatives) were the single most important source of successful job lead information. Sometimes these contacts actually intervened in the process.

The job search learning was structured in terms of a group of job seekers who actively sought employment for themselves. Various means of support was provided such as telephones, clerical staff (for typing resumes), telephone directories, industrial directories, photocopying, and so forth. Participants were paired with one another so that a "buddy system" was devised to offer mutual support and assistance.

The first group of participants utilizing the new job finding procedure under experimental conditions (that is, a control group) represented a cross-section of the unemployed fulltime job seekers. The results indicated that the new job finding procedure, eventually designated as the Job Finding Club, was very effective in securing employment for individuals and was superior to the success achieved through more traditional means of obtaining work. At the end of 30 days, 65% of the new-procedure job seekers had found employment compared to about 35% of the control group. After three months, approximately 40% of the job-seekers in the control group had not secured employment, while only 7% of the individuals using the new job search procedure were still unemployed. With regard to the time taken to locate employment, the new procedure demonstrated clearly its effectiveness. The median time for securing full-time employment for those using the new procedure was two weeks in comparison with the eight weeks for the average job seeker in the control group. The average starting wage for the newprocedure participants was 21% higher than that of the control group. The new procedure, in summary, produced full-time employment for a greater proportion of participants and in a much shorter period of time.

These were such impressive results that the Work Incentive Program (WIN) of the Department of Labor funded five pilot projects in 1976-77, to test the feasibility of the Job Finding Club technique as an operational job search procedure for the WIN Program. The first site began operation in October, 1976, while the final site initiated operations in September of 1977. Each site involved a job club conducted by local WIN staff and a control group. Individuals were randomly assigned to the job club or to normal WIN services (the control).

Participants in the Job Club engaged in job search fulltime. They were provided with the necessary support (such as telephone, newspaper ads, writing materials, and so forth), and were encouraged to contact friends and relatives in locating job leads. The telephone was the primary means of obtaining job leads and arranging interviews. Participants were members of a group structured to give mutual support and assistance. Training in telephone use and interviewing skills was provided. There was an explicit emphasis on the personal and social skills of the individual and their role in communicating effectively in an interview the job related skills of the individual. In addition, the participant's family support and encouragement was enlisted to maintain motivation and mitigate interference from other family oriented activities.

Almost 1,000 WIN clients participated in either a job club or a control group at five sites: Harlem, New Brunswick, Tacoma, Wichita, Milwaukee. Members in both the Job Club or the Control had comparable demographic characteristics. (See Exhibit 3.)

EXHIBIT 3Comparability of Job Club and Control Samples

	JOB CLUB CLIENTS		CONTR	CONTROL CLIENTS	
	N	% of total	N	% of total	
Sex					
Male clients	218	45%	229	47%	
Female clients	267	5 5 %	261	53%	
Total	485	100%	49 0	100%	
Race					
Black clients	169	35%	170	36%	
White clients	294	61%	278	59%	
Other (Oriental and Indian)	19	4%	22	5%	
Total	482	100%	470	100%	
	104	100 %			
Education		~	240	500	
Clients completing high school	257	53%	248	52%	
Not completing high school	225	47%	234	48%	
Total	482	100%	482	100%	
WIN Status					
Mandatory clients	390	84%	364	82%	
Voluntary clients	75	16%	80	18%	
Total	465	100%	444	100%	
Military Background					
Veterans	90	22%	93	21%	
Non-Veterans	320	78%	344	79%	
Total	410	100%	437	100%	
	410	100 /0	107	100 /0	
Ethnic Background	5.0	1107	79	18%	
Spanish clients	52	11% 89%	79 363	82%	
Non-Spanish clients	406	=		82% 100%	
Total	458	100%	442	10076	
Physical and Mental Characteristics					
Handicapped clients	19	9%	26	13%	
Non-Handicapped clients	182	91%	181	87%	
Total	201	100%	207	100%	
Age Distribution					
21 years and under	46	9%	48	10%	
22 to 44 years	354	74%	340	70%	
45 years and older	80	17%	95	20%	
Total	480	100%	483	100%	
Mean Age	ı	34 years		35 years	
Mean number of dependents	ı	3		3	
•					



Source: "The Job Finding Club or a Method for Obtaining Employment for Welfare-Eligible Clients"

Regular WIN staff from the respective sites either volunteered or were appointed to serve as counselors in the Job Club using the new procedures for job search. The counselors were trained in the Job Club procedures for finding employment. None of the Control counselors received

this training.

The Job Club was almost twice as effective in obtaining employment: 62% compared to 33% for the Control Group during the entire demonstration period. (See Exhibit 4.)

CONTROL

EXHIBIT 4

Job-Finding Success at the Various Sites for the Job Club and Control Sample

	·	IOB CLUB			CONTROL	
Site	No. of clients	No. of jobs	% of clients obtaining jobs	No. of clients	No. of jobs	% of clients obtaining jobs
Harlem	107	60	56%	103	36	35%
New Brunswick	115	72	63%	112	33	30%
Tacoma	130	93	72%	130	51	39%
Wichita	82	49	60%	94	37	39%
Milwaukee	48	2 6	54%	50	6	12%
Total	482	300	62%	489	163	33%

Source:

"The Job Finding Club or a Method for Obtaining Employment for for Welfare-Eligible Clients"

Only jobs lasting at least 30 days were counted. These results include the no shows and drop-outs. If these are excluded from consideration, then the data on those who continued show the effectiveness of the Job Club procedures. While 80% of the Job Club participants secured employment, only 46% of the Control members obtained a job. Though there was little difference between the two groups in the types of jobs obtained, Job Club members were able to find more jobs and find them faster.

One finding, completely unanticipated, was that 10% of the Job Club participants (compared to 5% of the Control) reported working before the first session was held. This might indicate that some participants were actually employed even before they were assigned to the Job Club. Since daily attendance was required in the Jcb Club, participants who were employed could not attend the sessions and continue their work. Control participants could more easily defer revealing their employment because of comparatively lax attendance requirements. Should this interpretation be valid, treating job search as a full-time activity is one way of curtailing the number of persons employed who also receive welfare payments improperly.

Work Assistance Program⁸

The Work Assistance Program (WAP) is operated in Milwaukee County (Wisconsin) by a consortium of sixteen public and non-profit organizations. The program began in 1977 as a welfare reform project to assist persons on

Milwaukee County welfare to make the transition to productive unsubsidized employment. Central to the Work Assistance Program is the Job Club, initiated in June of 1979, which teaches participants how to find their own jobs. Approximately 400 people per month enter the Job Club, making this the largest known job search assistance program in the country.

The WAP serves an economically disadvantaged population. All eligible persons applying for general assistance (welfare) are referred to WAP intake unless there is medical documentation stating that the applicant is unable to work, or the applicant is eligible for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Approximately 80% (400 per month) of those participants referred to WAP intake from the Department of Social Services are assigned to the Job Club.

Since the Job Club only accepts new participants once a week most participants must wait a few days between their assignment and the first meeting of the Job Club. Participants register with a WAP placement counselor at the Wisconsin Job Service office during this waiting period where they have access to the Job Service job orders, and traditional placement services. Towards the end of 1979 approximately 15% of the entering persons found employment during this phase of the WAP program.

The Job Club is a four-week, 20 hour per week CETA stipend program designed to teach participants how to find their own jobs. Participants entering the Job Club become part of a group of between 12 and 20 participants who are

actively involved in job seeking skills training and structured job search.

The first week of the program is designed to teach the "what, where, and how" of effective job-seeking. Participants define "what" they are able to do based on their personal and work skills. A series of skill identification exercises are used to assist the participant in defining a clear job objective. Each participant defines what he/she wants to do for the immediate future based on real skills and personal qualities.

Participants then learn "where" they could possibly find a job by identifying the universe of potential employers for their particular job objective. This is a two-step process. First participants identify genera! categories of employment, and then move on to list specific area employers in each category. Participants list these "leads" from a variety of sources. Participants have at least 200 job "leads" before they actually begin contacting employers, and these have been listed in a matter of hours.

After participants have a clear sense of what they can do, and where they could get hired, they concentrate on "how" to get hired by refining their selling tools: the application form, a resume where appropriate, and their interviewing skills. Each participant leaves the first week group with a completed application that has been reviewed and discussed in the group, and all participants learn to prepare a skills oriented resume. The participants spend considerable time working on interviewing skills because Job Club stresses the idea that the "interview gets the job."

Interview training consists of general discussion of key interviewing strategies, practice in diads and triads. and video-taping of mock interviews. Feedback is provided individually to the participant after the video interview, as well as in the group setting Participants also have the opportunity to practice interviews throughout the four week program should they feel the need for additional training.

Job Club discussions also cover job-survival techniques including coping on the job, communication with supervisors.

and the importance of attendance and punctuality. Participants role-play employers in various job-related situations in an attempt to have participants understand the employer's point of view in conflict situations.

The second, third, and fourth week of the program include structured job search and follow-up supportive counseling. Participants report daily to Job Club to telephone employers and set up interviews, as well as to discuss the outcome of previous interviews. Emphasis is placed on organizing the job search and maintaining contact with employers.

The WAP Job Club places a heavy emphasis on group facilitation techniques to encourage the development of peer support within the group. Since participants are referred to the Job Club as part of their WAP programming, rather than entering on a volunteer basis, motivation for the job search is often lacking. Part of building the group dynamic includes creating a climate of motivation and direction with people who often display severe self-image problems. A primary goal of the Job Club is to assist participants to believe in themselves and their ability to have control of their lives. The group format decreases the impact of employer rejection, and creates a secure environment in which the participant can experience some success.

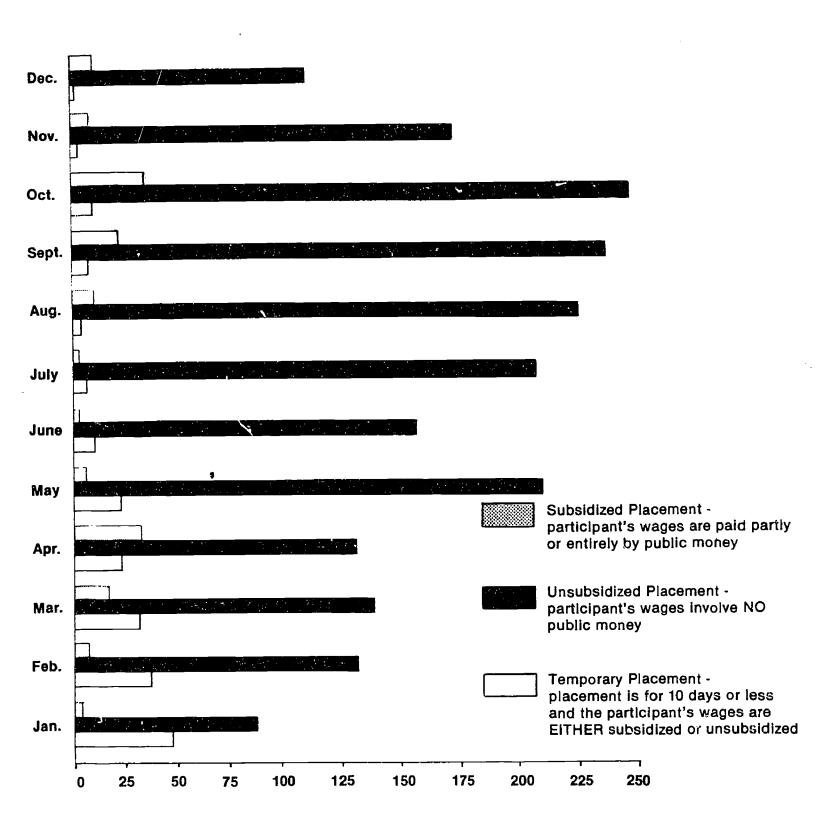
Those participants who do not find employment during the four week program enter an education or work experience program designed to upgrade skills necessary for employment. Participants may re-enter the Job Club after completing their work experience program.

Since WAP's inception in 1977, slightly over 4,000 participants have found employment. The general assistance population decreased from about 7,000 in 1977 to under 2.000 in December. 1979.

Of the people leaving the Job Club in 1979 for all reasons, including transfer to work experience, drop-outs, and placements, 47.8% of these "closures" were placements. Of the people completing the four week program, 62.1% were placements. (See Exhibit 5).



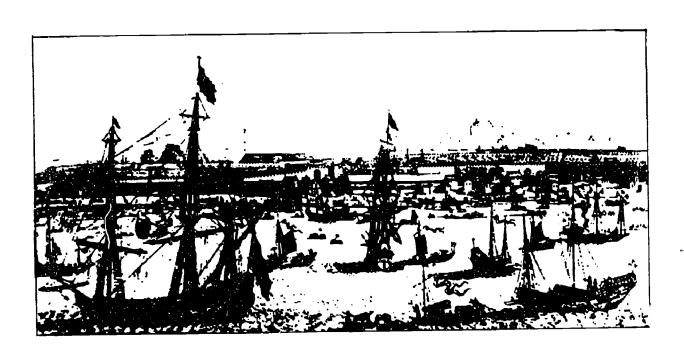
EXHIBIT 5 WAP PLACEMENT ACTIVITY* January-December 1979



Source: Work Assistance Program 1979 Annual Report

^{*}Some placements were self-made and therefore difficult to verify. In 1980, WAP will use United States Employment Service Standards and verify each placement.





The assumption is that
job finding is a learnable
skill involving the performance
of certain tasks.



BASIC STRUCTURE OF SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH

The basic structure of self-directed job search is relatively uncomplicated: Information, Skills, and Support. The specifics of these are also easy to grasp, while the process which puts them together in an effective manner is comparatively subtle. The provision of these basic elements in job search training occurs within a framework of self-help and positive reinforcement in which the individual assumes responsibility for securing employment. The following discussion is an overview of the basic structure of self-directed job search.

Information

Information generally deals with the labor market, the hiring process, the participant, the employer's perspectives, and communicating with others. This becomes the basis for the skill building exercises. The details, emphasis, and even terminology elucidating each of these major factors will differ from program to program. Some programs, for instance, may offer extensive details on labor market information. Others will glide over the standard labor market information as such, feeling it is not necessary to understand it in order to obtain a job.

Although all self-directed job search programs endeavor to have the participant be specific and realistic about employment, the extent of self-analysis varies considerably according to the general orientation of the program and the participants being served. Accordingly, some programs may engage participants in value clarification exercises and an extensive analysis of past experiences particularly satisfying. Others will have job seekers focus primarily on the functional skills useful to a prospective employer.

It is essential that participants understand the realities of the hiring process, especially how jobs are usually filled and the various employer "screens" which filter people out of the hiring process. Jobs are always available, but many are never formally advertised. Studies indicate most jobs are secured through personal contacts or by applying directly to an employer. In other words, the public announcement of a job is the last step in an announcement process which has been ongoing and informal.

The primary function of many personnel departments is to screen out those who appear to be potential risks. The mechanisms for doing this are the application and/or resume. Anything (experience or otherwise) on the application which is a slight departure from the "ideal applicant" y disqualifies the applicant from further consideration.

Participants must be very clear about how this (the use of applications) works and, more importantly, what can be done to cope successfully with it.

Paradoxically, this screening process selects those who write well and who write neatly and not necessarily those who can perform well the specific job. People are hired on the basis of "how they come across." To get the job one must not only know how to perform it, but how to communicate this verbally and nonverbally.

The interview is the absolutely crucial aspect of job search, because it is here that the hiring is done. Charles Hoffman of the Self-directed Placement Corporation is emphatic and unequivocal about this. He contends, "People do not get jobs for other people. They set up an interview." The interviewee either comes across well or fails to do so. A part of interviewing wel! is addressing what is on the employer's mind (rather than the interviewee's) in terms that have meaning to the employer and doing so effectively (communication transactions).

There is a statistical element to job search. In order to get the job one wants, one must have several interviews; and to get several interviews one must have contacted many employers. (An invitation to complete an application is neither an interview nor an invitation for an interview.) In other words, it is somewhat of a numbers game in which the "nays" outnumber the "yeas". There is nothing personal about it and participants must learn this. It is simply the nature of the "game". In order to get to those few "yeas," one may expect to encounter many, many "nays" first. Thus, every refusal brings the job seeker closer to the eventual "yea" (for the interview and a job). This is both a fact to recognize and an attitude to adopt.

Skill Building

The information becomes the basis for the training in self-directed job search. It sets the framework, delineates an atmosphere, and addresses (in varying degrees of scope and detail) the rhetoric and reality of important search aspects. The job search information is a necessary precursor of skill building in self-directed job search.

The assumption is that job finding is a learnable skill involving the performance of certain tasks. Some highly motivated and perceptive people only need to be informed in order to begin and maintain job search. Others must have the benefits of training aids (visuals, simulations, discussion, role playing) in order to grasp certain concepts and techniques of job search. While the goal of the training is a job, the objective is for participants to obtain at least a minimum level of competency in job search procedures. This is largely a matter of

self-confidence and the ability of staff to facilitate comfort zones so that participants are willing to attempt the various tasks. It is a matter of moving participants incrementally from the unknown (and threatening) to clarity, understanding, and willingness to attempt the unfamiliar. They must be moved to try it, motivated to practice it, and, ideally, inspired to do it well. This is skill building.

The more important skill building areas are: developing job leads, penetrating employer screens, telephone use, getting the interview, and most important, interviewing. The basic skill building procedure is to model an effective approach (or approaches), get the participants to try it, practice it under non-threatening conditions, and then to actually use it in job search.

The telephone is an efficient and economical way to canvass employers, but requires a certain level of confidence. Between 10 and 20 employers can be contacted in the time it takes to visit a single employer. However, one should not simply phone an employer and ask if there are any jobs. This may turn out to be as effective as never having telephoned. Self-directed job search programs provide various techniques for soliciting this information effectively.

Participants may be provided standard scripts to follow and actually practice telephoning "employers" to develop their technique and refine the script. Other participants can role play the receptionist or hiring authority. Some job search programs use a buddy system for this where one does the telephoning and the "buddy" serves as a sympathetic critic. This is used during practice sessions and, also, when actual employers are telephoned.

Perhaps the most important aspect of job search skill building is the interview. Everything learned culminates in the interview for a job. Participants need to become aware that the interview is where they market themselves to the employer; the interviewee is the seller and the employer is the buyer.

There are several key questions on the employer's mind. What can this person do for me? Why is he/she here? (Does she/he really want to work?) How much will this cost me? (What is the return on my investment?) Where are the risks if I hire this person? The employer arrives at answers to these questions by posing directly or indirectly, a series of questions to which the interviewee must respond. Why do you want to work here? Where have you worked before and for how long? Why did you leave? What can you do? Are you willing to relocate? Work overtime? What do you know about the company? How well and confidently the interviewee handles the questions combined with the total image projected determines whether a job offer is extended.

Both role play and videotape are effective ways to practice interviewing and to learn how to handle these questions. Videotape is most effective since it permits an individual to see their own performance. Some programs videotape participants before and after training so they can see the improvement. It is important for participants to gain confidence in their interviewing ability since it will be conveyed (or the lack of it) in an actual interview for a job.

Support

The explicit objective of self-directed job search training is to bring participants to the point where they are able and willing to undertake their own search for employment. Since the economically disadvantaged face a variety of hindrances to initiating their own job search, support is essential. The extent and relevance of the support will differ according to the circumstances of the groups served. There is a hierarchy of needs faced by different groups and by individuals within a group. These needs range from physical/tangible factors to social/emotional facilitators of individual initiative.

The "Support" factor of self-directed job search may be considered in terms of: service support, social support, and staff support.

Service support designates those things of a tangible nature such as transportation and child care which a participant may need just to take part in the training, and those physical entities necessary to develop job search skills as well as actively engage in job search; telephone, directories, newspapers, clerical assistance, training materials, and so forth. The purpose of this support is to remove any barriers which prevent participation in self-directed job search.

The necessity and extent of the support is a function of the type of participant served and whether participation is required or requested. Child care assistance probably would be essential for a group of AFDC recipients, for example. If the training is required of all CETA enrollees, then service support becomes more significant since participant needs will be so varied. Conversely, participants determined job ready and who have few service needs might undertake self-directed job search simply by being provided the job search training.

Social support comes via the sense of belonging associated with membership in a group engaged in a common endeavor. The group when handled properly, becomes a dynamic resource of mutual assistance, providing ideas, recognition, place, and emotional encouragement. It becomes an audience of sympathetic critics which fosters a non-threatening environment where risk-taking is facilitated. It allows participants to share the painful experiences and disappointments associated with job search. The dynamics must be handled in such a way that the total experience is sufficiently enabling and moving to increase a person's self-confidence and enhance their self-image so they willingly initiate contact with employers.

Although every aspect of self-directed job search is important, the staff may be the most significant factor in the total process. The staff sets the tone and the pace, controls the flow, makes the "connections," facilitates positive group dynamics, and is aware of individual participant needs. The staff is responsible for motivating a group of people who "know" there are no available jobs to willingly initiate their own search for employment. It is a monumental challenge taking a group of people from where they are and getting them to where they want to be, and persuading them to look forward to the trip! Yet this is the task the staff must effect. Just the provision of job search information will not do it. Staff must be the facilitators of positive, upbeat motivation and reinforcement.



A single question was posed separately to directors of two different self-directed job search programs. (To what extent is the staff a significant element in the success of job search training?) The replies were succinct and emphatic: "99.4%." "About 99%." A related question was asked a third director (Which is the most important; good staff or good materials?). His reply was: "Staff. It doesn't matter what materials you use," perhaps a slight exaggeration in order to stress the significance of staff in this process.

Leaders of self-directed job search training should have skill with group facilitation and a sensitivity to the needs and potential of each participant. It is important that they: (1) want to provide the training; (2) are inclined to undertake challenging assignments; (3) can see the positive side of things. Staff need skill, savvy, moxy, and good judgement in order to provide effective training in self-directed job search.

Self-directed job search training occurs within a framework of self-help and positive reinforcement. There is an expectation that participants can and should take responsibility for finding their own jobs. While participants may enter the training doubting this, they are moved to accept and act upon the premise in a short period of time. They are moved to believe that self-directed job search is a successful approach to finding employment and this belief sets in motion attitudes and behaviors leading to a job offer.

The fact that people from a variety of backgrounds have used the approach successfully can be extremely persuasive. Trainers usually have success stories about past participants that are presented to the group which enable members to identify with someone in similar circumstances who has found employment through self-directed job search. The participants begin to think that if another person in a similar situation can do it, then they can.

In addition, participants are informed of the realities of the hiring process, placement agencies, and employer perspectives. They are told things which they know to be true from past failures at job search, but which have not been articulated clearly and candidly. Most important, participants are provided "prescriptions" for correcting their job search deficiencies and for successfully handling the realities of the job market.

The various group exercises and skill building techniques usually have an explicit job search objective, but tacitly build self-confidence in the participant's ability to perform job search. A large part of this confidence building is that participants discover for themselves the procedures actually work! Throughout the training, positive reinforcement and constructive critiques are used to motivate participants.

There are different approaches for facilitating positive group dynamics. Some are based on behavior modification, others on transaction analysis, others on a type of sensitivity training, and still others on participation training. However, what they seem to have in common is that they offer an opportunity for achievement by:

- providing participants increasing responsibility
- providing recognition for doing well
- providing peer support

- providing timely feedback on performance
- providing greater autonomy in locating employment

EXHIBIT 6

Structure of Self-Directed Job Search

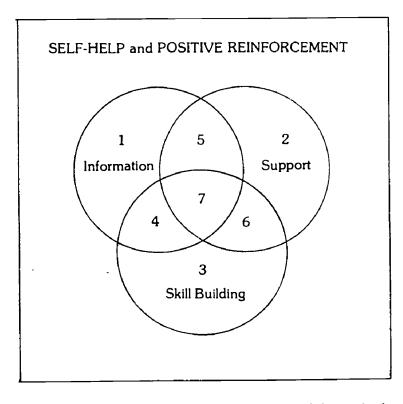


Exhibit 6 depicts the basic structure of self-directed job search. The square around the circles represents a framework of self-help and positive reinforcement. Each circle represents one of the three major elements: information, support, and skill building. The numbers within various areas of the circles indicate the relationships among these elements. For instance, areas 1,2, and 3 do not overlap with any area of the other circles. They represent those aspects of job search training which are "isolated" from other elements in their presentation to participants. In practice, however, this is a virtual impossibility so that the diagram depicts the logical relations for purposes of illustration; not the actual situation. Usually the first day of training is dominated by providing information (area 1) with comparatively little attention to skill building (area 3). Support (area 2) may represent service support which can be arranged prior to the first meeting of the group.

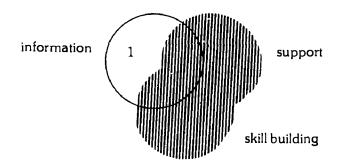
Areas 4, 5, and 6 represent more realistic situations since they display the overlap (interaction) of these basic elements. Self-directed job search information should always be provided in a supportive context. This is represented by area 5 on the diagram, the common area of the circles representing information and support but not skill building. Similarly, area 6 represents the provision of both information and skill



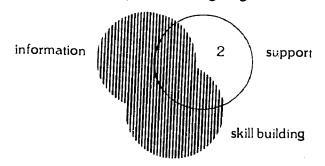
building in a non-supportive environment, a very undesirable situation.

Area 7 depicts the single area of the diagram where all three elements overlap. This represents the ideal all self-directed job search programs strive to attain since it is the balanced convergence of information, skills, enabling means, and motivation needed by the job seeker. Presumably, when a majority of participants in a self-directed job search program secure employment, this proper convergence (area 7) is occurring.

A modified diagram can be used to contrast other job search approaches with self-directed job search. For instance, some approaches offer information on job search but provide neither support nor skill building opportunities. Persons may be given a booklet on job search or shown a film or attend a lecture. However, they must secure their own transportation or child care (service support) and figure out how to handle certain real life situations (skill building). The following diagram represents this approach to job search. The shaded areas indicate the support and skill building are non-existent.



Similarly, support may be provided in other approaches but the information is either grossly inadequate or not provided and there is no opportunity to develop job search skills. This is represented by the following diagram.



Self-directed job search stresses learning by doing because it is a self-help approach. This makes a tremendous impact on the attitudes and behaviors of the participant's since it is an overt expression of belief in the participant's ability and desire to achieve a particular objective. Some of the differences between self-directed job search and other placement approaches may be seen at Exhibit 7. It shows the messages conveyed to individuals by the basic characteristics of self-directed job search and by job search efforts that are not self-directed.

Self-directed job search provides participants instruction, practice, and judicious encouragement to engage in their own search for employment, thus structuring a real opportunity for personal achievement. The expectation of success in a group setting enables them to initiate and maintain a consistent job search effort. It is this approach which has produced a significant percentage of unsubsidized placements at very reasonable costs.

EXHIBIT 7

Characteristics and Messages of Job Search Approaches

SDJS

Self-help
(I'll find a job for myself)

Training (I can learn job-finding skills.)

Active (I'll make an effort daily, e.g. at least 50 phone calls a day.)

Direct (I'll contact employers.)

Hidden job market
(I'll discover available jobs yet to be publicized.)

Support (I really don't have any excuse not looking for work.)

Group Setting (I'm not the only one in this situation; others are trying, so should I.)

NON-SDJS

Agency dependency (You need us to locate a job for you.)

Advice (We'll tell you what to do.)

Passive (Come in when we call.)

Indirect (We'll contact employers for you.)

Visible job market (The available jobs are listed here.)

Services (They aren't doing enough for me.)

Isolated Individual (Others don't have it as bad as I do Why should I try?)



It is difficult to pinpoint precisely why self-directed job search is a highly successful approach to placing unemployed job seekers. There are a variety of self-directed job search programs and each seems to work well, placing between 50% to 90% of the participants. And although job search training offered in a group setting by capable staff appears exremely important, it may be instructive to heed Joseph Fischer's conclusion on this point until a definitive analysis of

self-directed job search has been completed.

Frankly, we do not believe that any single aspect has been an isolated essential. It is the total atmosphere, it's treating the period of (training) like a real job; it's tough but concerned supervision of . . . staff; it's the stimulation of constructive group interaction and peer pressure; it's the quality and effectiveness of the instruction; it's the sincere desire of the clients to get a job and their willingness to work hard towards that objective. Altogether, as a totality, that is what makes it work ⁷





Though the variables of job search training are distinct, the reality is that they are all interrelated and must be considered in their total relation with one another.



VARIABLES OF SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH

The conceptual structure of various self-directed job search programs is identical: information, support, and skill building. There are differences among the programs in style, technique, and orientation of program implementation within this general structure. This is in part due to how the programs perceive the fundamental problem of the unemployed job seeker as indicated by the relative priority given to knowledge of the labor market, job search strategies, motivation, behavioral change, and personal inventories. Some programs regard the job interview as the single most significant reason why people are hired. Other programs focus on the importance of behavioral and/or attitudinal change which participants must make. The conceptualization of the fundamental job search problem in turn influences the choices and/or emphases given to certain operational variables endemic to self-directed job search.

Private Industry Councils and CETA Prime Sponsors electing to implement a self-directed job search program must consider several variables in relation to resources and needs of their locality as well as to their overall employment and training priorities. Some of these variables are displayed on Exhibit 8 and discussed on the following pages. It should

EXHIBIT 8

Some Variables of Self-Directed Job Search

Group Composition:

Homogeneous or Heterogeneous

Search Objective:

Job or Career

Locale:

Urban or Rural

Participation:

Requested or Required

Duration:

Short Term or Long Term

Intensity:

Full-Time or Part-Time

Payment:

Stipend or No Stipend

Sequence:

Entry Component or Exit Component

Support:

Extensive or Minimum

Job Leads:

Totally Participant Obtained or Partially

Agency Supplied

Training Delivery:

Internal or External

serve as a useful introduction to factors which need to be addressed clearly before implementing a self-directed job search program.

The order in which the variables are presented do not indicate their significance although the first two have a basic priority and seem to be influential of the choices made among the other variables. The reality is that the variables are all interrelated and must be considered in their total relation with one another.

Group Composition: Homogeneous or Heterogeneous

Self-directed job search training programs have been successful with both homogeneous and heterogeneous groups; that is, groups whose membership has similar backgrounds and personal characteristics, and groups where there is considerable variation in age, sex, and race. The basic training process is the same for both groups.

Each member of a heterogeneous group becomes a unique resource due to their different experiences and perspectives. These can be facilitated to solve problems, illuminate issues, and generally serve as a positive factor in the overall process under the guidance of a skilled trainer.

Participants who are placed in a homogeneous group according to their special circumstance, for example, exoffender or handicapped, tend to focus on their common problem rather than on a solution. Ex-offenders having trouble getting a job may sit around and convince themselves that ex-offenders cannot obtain employment. But if handicapped persons or displaced homemakers are in the group and also having problems, then they see things differently. In other words, a heterogeneous group tends to prevent members from taking a narrow view of job search and from feeling self-pity. Instead, it motivates the group to concentrate on the available resources and talents which can be used to obtain employment. Persons see others with different but equally restrictive barriers to employment struggling to find work and are themselves inspired to do likewise.

However, administrative considerations may make it necessary to structure a homogeneous group of job search participants. For instance, self-directed job search funded by Title IV of CETA will restrict the training to youth.

Typically, though, special circumstances will influence the homogeneous grouping of members in a self-directed job search program since their "special circumstances" are perceived as justifying it. Displaced homemakers, exoffenders, handicapped persons, or even youth seeking their initial unsubsidized full-time job might be groups which need certain elements of the training tailored to their circumstance

and perspective. This would entail the addition and deletion of content areas and/or service support items. Job search training for ex-offenders, for instance, must provide guidance on when and how to handle the matter of a prison record. AFDC recipients participating in such training, on the other hand, will need child care services. Grouping participants based on special circumstances allows self-directed job search to structure the training in order to more readily meet specific needs.

Search Objective: Job or Career

In theory, the two extremes of the job search objective are a job or a career. The latter choice generally connotes high pay, advancement opportunity, fringe benefits, and a long-term commitment, while the former conjures something considerably less. For the individual, the choice of objectives will be a function of some combination of the following: financial circumstances; skills and previous work experience; self-image and initiative. Generally, CETA enrollees are not primarily concerned with career choices. Many have work experience and a reasonably clear idea of an occupational area in which they will accept employment.

Though the unemployed economically disadvantaged participant has pressing financial neds, he or she is not always clear about securing the best possible job in terms of pay, fringes and opportunity for promotion. Self-directed job search training attempts to provide a perspective and realistic strategy for making job choices in terms of these considerations.

Many job seekers do not distinguish between jobs when it appears that only one is available to them. They are ready to accept what is offered without regard for longer term considerations. Immediate financial needs make this understandable. But even here there is a place for some understanding of the "better" jobs.

There are some jobs which are "bad" in that they do not provide advancement opportunity or fringe benefits while offering low pay. Other low paying jobs are comparatively "good" jobs because there is a genuine opportunity for advancement. Self-directed job search training can provide a framework in which these distinctions and choices can be analyzed and decided upon rationally. For some participants, it might make sense to take a bad job to get experience and then utilize the techniques of self-directed job search to obtain a good job at a later date. Other participants may need to concentrate on positioning themselves in an occupational area, even when the immediate job is not preferred, in order to obtain a desired job at some future time.

It is not particularly important for participants to be concerned primarily with a lifetime job. Job change, even career change, is a common occurrence in today's labor market for white collar and blue collar employees alike. The important thing is for participants to have a basis for changing jobs intelligently and the job search skills to secure another job as the need arises according to their maturity and work skills.

It is important, also, for evaluators of self-directed job programs to understand the job search objective in ERIC to evaluate the program properly. If the objective of the

program is placement; i.e., a job, then it should not be evaluated on the basis of wage level, type of job or advancement opportunity unless these are specified in advance. On the other hand, if quality of placement is the objective, then the program should not be evaluated solely in terms of the speed with which participants find jobs or the percentage of placements. In brief, the evaluation criteria should be commensurate with the search objective.

Locale: Urban or Rural

The location of the job search, whether urban or rural, does not impact significantly the content or process of the training, but it does make a difference in peripheral matters. Emphasis on selected search techniques and skill building will be increased or decreased depending on the location of the job search. Telephone contact is more accepted in urban areas than in rural locales where personal contact seems to be responded to more favorably by employers. Consequently, skill building exercises on telephone use may not be as extensive in a rural area as in an urban location.

The provision of child care and transportation can be particularly challenging in rural areas due to the distances involved and a comparative lack of institutional resources. When local CETA programs require that child care be provided by an approved agency and one is not within the geographical proximity of the participant's residence then alternative arrangements must be devised. Either the individual must pay for the service or arrangements can be made for it at the training location.

Public transportation systems are relatively non-existent in rural areas, necessitating provision of transportation for job search participants. However, rural participants generally have automobiles in comparison with their urban counterparts who rely upon mass transit systems to travel to and from work. Those who do not have vehicles can usually share a ride with someone in the job search group who has transportation. Participants in rural areas may be less willing to travel an hour or two to work, preferring jobs that are within a half hour drive.

Rural self-directed job search programs present more of a problem securing trained, capable staff than do programs offered in urban areas. It may be impossible to secure staff residing within the geographical vicinity of the job search area. Staff may have to be out-stationed in order to provide the training.

Urban areas have variety in the types of occupations and in the number of employment opportunities within an occupation. There may be as many as 25 roofing companies in a metropolitan area, for instance, while in a rural setting there may be only one roofing company within a 50 mile radius. If that one company does not need help, then there is no real opportunity for being a roofer.

Another difficulty associated with job search training in rural areas is having sufficient numbers of participants within a reasonably close geographical proximity to constitute a job search group. The distances to be traveled may be so great that it is unrealistic to offer the training even where there are sufficient numbers of participants. Generally, then, rural job

~ 1

search will be offered in areas where there is sufficient population to generate a job search group. Otherwise, the training must be provided on an individualized basis or in groups of less than 10 people.

Participation: Requested or Required

Potential participants for self-directed job search either may be given an option of volunteering for the program or else mandated to participate. Programs comprised of volunteers can anticipate a higher degree of motivation and effort. The fact that they select the activity is indicative of a need or desire for employment. Consequently, the average time per placement should be relatively low and the percentage of placements comparatively high. This is facilitated when participants are job ready, that is, possessing either work skills or work experience which can expedite job acquisition. With a highly motivated job ready group, it is feasible to have a higher participant to staff ratio; perhaps as many as 20 members in the group.

Job search programs relying upon volunteers (requested participation) may anticipate certain difficulties. First, there will be difficulty getting the anticipated number of volunteers if more desireable options are available to the individuals. This might come in the form of alternative training activities which pay the same and/or which are not demanding of the individual. It might also come via welfare benefits which reinforce unemployment rather than obtaining an unsubsidized job.

Secondly, intake entities with referral responsibility for the job search program may feel pressured to meet their referral goals. This can result in referrals which are not truly volunteers or who need additional remediation before undertaking a self-directed job search program.

The lag time which occurs while waiting for enough people to volunteer for the training should not be long. People lose interest, enroll in other programs, find employment, and disappear for numerous other reasons. The longer the lag time the more likely the attrition before the first session of the program.

Programs mandating participation in self-directed job search may expect individuals with a greater variety of needs and comparatively low motivation. The extent of this will be in part a function of whether the participation is mandated prior to or after enrollment in other employment training activity. Presumably persons having completed skills training will be better equipped and thus more willing to initiate job search than those who have not benefited from such training.

Required participation in self-directed job search should result in more placements than a volunteer program simply because of the volume of participants. However, the percentage of placements will be lower than a volunteer program due to the wide variances in participant circumstances and preparation. In addition, required participation separates those "playing games" with the agency from thos who really want employment.

The training staff for a program where participation is required should be skilled and experienced in group facilitated and the nuances of self-directed job search. The more

variation in the group the greater the challenge and demands made of staff. Thus, it is advisable to have a lower participant to staff ratio than volunteer programs; perhaps 10-15 in a group. Staff may anticipate being "tested" during the initial sessions until they have proven themselves. It is, therefore, advisable to obtain the very best staff to facilitate self-directed job search where participation is required.

Participants in a required program generally have greater needs and more needs than those who volunteer for self-directed job search. It is particularly important to coordinate the program with a variety of human service agencies in order to expeditiously utilize their resources for the benefit of enrollees who need additional service and/or remediation.

Duration: Short Term or Long Term

Short term self-directed job search training programs may be conducted over a period of one or two weeks with long term training efforts requiring between 2-4 weeks to complete. These time frames are predicated upon a full-time participant effort and refer to actual training time. Additional time is required for the actual search aspects of the program. The decision whether to provide short term or long term training will be primarily a function of three factors: the type of participants to be trained, the skill and experience of the staff which provides the training, and the local economy. Effective short term self-directed job search can occur where the participants are job ready and motivated and/or the training is provided by a highly skilled staff. Persons with job skills should find work in a comparatively short time once they learn how to develop job leads and how to communicate their skills effectively in an interview. Under the supervision of experienced and skilled staff, a high percentage of job seekers will be able to secure employment even if they are not quite job ready.

Typically, however, self-directed job search training for the economically disadvantaged will be between 2-4 weeks. This is especially true if participants do not have job skills or are not job ready. It takes time to overcome fears, build confidence, and structure an environment where people are willing to take risks. Participants need an opportunity to adjust to employer rejections and refine their search techniques. This can be adequately offered in long term self-directed job search. And if the local economy is in a downturn, additional time will be needed for the actual job search.

Intensity: Full-Time or Part-Time

Full time self-directed job search seems to yield better results than a part-time program. It allows participants to focus their thought and efforts on a single objective within a specified period of time. Thus, the chances of a curtailed effort due to distractions from involvement in other activities are mitigated. A full time effort takes advantage of the statistical element; namely, the more time spent actively looking for work, the more contacts made, which lead to more interviews, and the likelihood that at least one will result in a job offer.

Full time search in a group setting offers greater emotional support and encouragement which is necessary for those who have doubts about themselves or their ability to secure meaningful employment. Daily meetings provide a sense of belonging, an identity with a social unit, and facilitates group cohesiveness and individual effort.

Frequent repetition of an activity improves learning retention and enhances skill acquisition of job search techniques. When training is provided only a few hours once a week, gains are harder to realize due to the lack of frequent reinforcement and practice.

Finally, a full time effort indicates something about the importance of the training itself and reinforces the claim that participants can and should secure their own employment. Conversely, a part-time effort gives the impression that the activity is not that significant. Participants may construe a part-time activity as something to tolerate in order to participate in another training activity. If so, it will be reflected in less than adequate job search attempts.

Although a full time program is preferable to a part-time program, there are circumstances in which the latter must be implemented. These are more related to logistical factors than to the efficacy of the activity. Staff, for instance, may be only available on a part-time basis. Or there may be a lack of appropriate space in which to conduct the training full-time. These will not generally be a problem in urban areas, but it can be a real factor in rural locations. If participants are enrolled in another CETA activity, PSE for example, they may be able only to get release for part of the week/day to participate in self-directed job search training.

Payment: Stipend or No Stipend

A non-stipended program may be feasible depending upon the circumstance of participants, duration of training, and funding considerations. Generally, such a program is feasible when it is short term and consists of volunteers. As a group, for instance, ex-offenders have an urgent need for employment and usually possess job skills which can be marketed. Their motivation facilitates rapid acquisition of a job so that a non-stipended program may be possible.

A non-stipended program may be used as an "assessment device" for those who are serious about locating employment. This, of course, assumes the participants do not have significant barriers to engaging in full time job search. Such participants might be youth seeking their initial full time employment and who still reside at home. The absence of a stipend facilitates a serious effort and mitigates the tendency to use the training as a replacement for employment.

These options must be considered in the light of other factors associated with self-directed job search training for the economically disadvantaged. First, job search creates an expense. Transportation is the most obvious one, since the job seeker must appear for interviews and make "cold calls" on employers. Job seekers with young children will need to arrange for child care during their time away from home which will be considerable if it is a full time effort. Payment of a stipend will off-set these expenses.

A stipend gives the trainers greater control since participants are being paid for their involvement. It also less an element of reality to viewing the training as a

"job" in which they find a job. The pay is then considered a "wage" for performing a job rather than a stipend for attendding a program. In addition, paying a stipend makes recruitment of participants easier and permits a longer training period should this be appropriate for a particular group of job seekers.

A stipend can be used to facilitate effectiveness when it is structured to reinforce desired behavior. Some self-directed job search programs pay participants a "wage" based on their days' production relative to job search rather than on the hours spent in the workshop. The pay is not so high as to provide an incentive for remaining in the program. It rewards the effort exerted and the achievement of specific tasks. Participants may be paid at the end of each day's "work", thus providing immediate compensation and an incentive for returning the next day.

Sequence: Entry Component or Exit Component

Self-directed job search training for CETA enrollees does not occur in isolation. It is offered in relationship ic various CETA services and activities. Thus, a decision must be made regarding the order of job search training in the overall sequence of employment training activities. The decision will result from generalizations about participants and/or strategic considerations of a programmatic nature.

If most CETA enrollees are considered to have marketable skills at intake, then job search could be provided as an option to other CETA training or even required for those determined to be job ready. Individuals would be referred to self-directed job search training from intake.

Declining allocations in CETA funding may be a factor in establishing self-directed job search as an entry component to other employment training activities. While funds are reduced, the number of CETA eligibles could remain unchanged or might even increase. Thus, there would not be enough money to provide the needed services unless there is a means of curtailing the demand. Using self-directed job search as an entry component could lessen the number needing CETA services since many would obtain unsubsidized employment through their participation in the training. This is one way to respond to funding-cuts and/or hiring freezes in Titles II-D and VI.

A third factor to consider in front ending a job search component is that an intake entity is aware of only a small percentage of the available jobs in a community. Many jobs go unpublicized or else are not listed with the agency. Enrollees therefore have a restricted opportunity to obtain unsubsidized employment. Augmenting their exposure to additional job opportunities via the hidden job market should result in more placements, thus alleviating the demand on CETA services.

Self-directed job search logically fits as an exit component for certain CETA training activities. It appears imperative at the conclusion of skill training programs for persons not immediately employed in order to maximize their chance for unsubsidized employment. Persons completing their tenure of PSE service, for example, should find job search training especially beneficial. Presumably they will have already

obtained skills in their PSE job, but might need assistance marketing these to private employers. Self-directed job search can provide the know-how and facilitate the self-confidence to do this.

Self-directed job search may be used as an exit component to conventional placement procedures. Participants may register with a public placement agency and work with a job development specialist for 30-60 days in an effort to find full time employment. If after this time they have been unable to find a job, they would enroll in self-directed job search.

Support: Extensive or Minimum

Of the three support facets--service, social, staff-discussed previously, social (group) and staff support are presumed to be central to self-directed job search. The extent of service support, however, may vary according to participant circumstances and agency resources. Self-directed job search programs provide those service items directly associated with the training or actual job search such as telephones, directories, newspapers, and worksheets for employer contacts. Some programs also offer clerical assistance and duplication services relating to resume preparation. The provision of other services such as transportation, child care, housing-assistance and so forth which are indirectly related are optional, but should depend upon participant circumstances, the duration of the training, and whether job search is required or requested. It may not seem necessary to provide extensive service support for a volunteer program or one of a short duration or when participants are job ready.

Generally, however, provisions should be made to offer these services in order to remove as many barriers to participation as possible. It frees participants to concentrate solely on finding a job. If services are provided by agencies other than the job search training entity, then possible delays should be anticipated due to the requisite coordination and additional paperwork. Extensive service support should be provided whenever participation in job search training is mandated.

Job Leads: Totally Participant Obtained or Partially Agency Supplied

Proponents of self-directed job search cite several reasons for participants developing their own leads. The program teaches individuals to become self-reliant by providing them a job search approach which can be used at any time in the future if the need arises. This breaks the pattern of public agency dependency to which many CETA enrollees have grown accustomed. Self-directed job search is a viable alternative to such dependency.

Secondly, persons engaged in their own job search can devote 100% of their time to it. This is significant because of the statistical element associated with job search (the more time, more employer contacts, more interviews, likelihood one results in a job offer). Job search via a job developer is restricted in that only a fraction of the job developer's time can be devoted to the needs of any one person because of the size the developer's case load. Moreover, self-directed job

search does not have the red tape associated with conventional placement approaches for the economically disadvantaged.

In addition, many employers prefer hiring persons who contact a business themselves since it is generally construed to indicate a person who wants to work and who has some initiative.

Finally, participants need to develop their own leads because it gives them a chance at more job openings. As noted in a previous section, not all job openings are listed with placement agencies and many are never advertised in the media. By using various means of identifying unpublicized jobs, a participant increases their chance of securing employment.

The emphasis on participant obtained job leads is not necessarily incompatible with the utilization of public placement agencies such as the local Job Service office. Since self-directed job search encourages participants to use a variety of means for obtaining a lead, the Job Service is logically one of these means. They have years of experience and a network of employer contacts which may expedite a successful job search. It must also be acknowledged that some participants may welcome or in fact need the assistance of a job developer at some point in their self-directed job search.

Linkage between the Job Service and a self-directed job search program could be forged at the beginning or conclusion of the job search training. In the former instance participants could register with the Job Service before they begin training. This would fit in with the lag time that usually occurs between assignment to job search and the initial meeting for job search training. Alternatively, persons might participate first in job search, utilizing the assistance of a job developer if they have not secured employment within a specified period of time.

Training Delivery: Internal or External

A decision to implement self-directed job search entails the question of whether to operate the program or subcontract it to another organization. If an organization already has the trained staff and normally operates programs, then this may not be an issue. On the other hand, if trained staff are not within the organization and/or programs are not ordinarily operated, then a decision must be made whether to subcontract the self-directed job search program.

Organizations electing to operate self-directed job search training themselves may wish to develop and retain this programmatic resource. This assumes that the training will be (or at least has the potential) a permanent part of employment training program offerings and that existing placement approaches need augmenting. Presumably operating the job search training gives the organization greater control over the training in terms of staffing and training content.

In addition, there may be cost advantages associated with operating the program. Generally, it costs less over the long term to hire staff and operate the program. Initial costs will be comparatively high due to start-up factors but this will level out over time. It should be noted that cost advantages associated with operating the program are functions of

effecting a high percentage of placements in a relatively short period of time. If this does not happen then the cost effectiveness is questionable.

These advantages should be assessed in light of other factors. First, the extent of control is a function of several variables. There is restricted control if the staff positions are subject to merit system parameters and pre-determined job descriptions; then only persons meeting the prescribed specifications may be considered for staff positions. This is particularly significant due to the role which staff plays in the effectiveness of self-directed job search. In other words, the best person for the job may not meet the requisite qualifying criteria.

Secondly, staff turnover is a reality in CETA operations which must be recognized candidly. If the job search training staff leaves, then the agency expertise is lost. This eventually will be reflected in declining placement percentages from the self-directed job search component.

Organizations should be aware also of their flexibility to make needed changes in both staff and program content, and the speed with which they can be made. If staff performance is considered inadequate, can they be replaced within a few weeks or will it take several months? How much impact will organizational procedures and protocol have on making desired program changes? The answer to these questions influences the efficacy of self-directed job search training when needed changes are recognized.

Organizations may elect to subcontract the operation of self-directed job search when they are unconvinced of its value and wish to test the program for inclusion in their repertoire of activities. If the program does not generate the desired results or is determined to be unsuitable, then it automatically terminates with minimum disruption upon the conclusion of the contract period. This is both efficient and economical when a program is implemented on a trial basis in order to determine its utility.

There are other advantages to subcontracting self-directed job search even when testing the program is not a motive. The operating organization may have more latitude and flexibility in staffing, program content, and the speed with which changes can be implemented. This is particularly true of private organizations. Staff can be secured solely with regard to being able to produce the desired outcomes; that is, unsubsidized placements. Similarly, needed changes can be introduced relatively fast.

Many contractors are willing to negotiate a performance based contract, (or subgrant in the case of public agencies) guaranteeing a consistent level of performance. They are keenly sensitive to producing the requisite outcomes in order to retain the agreement. If performance is inadequate, the necessary changes are usually initiated immediately in order to correct the deficiencies and maintain a high level of performance.





A very real problem, though not necessarily obvious, is the beguiling simplicity and easy comprehension of the general structure which overshadows the significance of the process.



LIMITATIONS OF SELF-DIRECTED JOB SEARCH

Although Self-Directed Job Search training has generated impressive results and holds promise of significantly augmenting conventional placement procedures, it is not without its own difficulties.

A very real problem, though not necessarily an obvious one, is the beguiling simplicity and easy comprehension of the general structure which overshadows the significance of the process. The basic elements are readily grasped: information on job search; skill building relative to job search; and support during job search, including the group setting in which all of this occurs and trained staff. Most job search approaches provide information, some offer limited training, and still fewer provide extensive support. Nevertheless, because the content of other procedures are similar on the surface, typical responses to Self-Directed Job Search are: "Sounds interesting. I think we can use parts of it in our program." Or, "What's so new about it? We've been doing this." There is the tendency, in other words, to perceive what is new and different in terms of that which is familiar and understood. Thus, the differences are screened out and the broad similarities are identified. But it is precisely these differences which make the difference in results.

It is difficult, and perhaps impossible, to convey adequately on paper the contribution made by group dynamics and the appropriately orchestrated peer support by capable staff. The give-and-take between and among staff and participants makes a significant contribution to the efficacy of Self-Directed Job Search. Messages and reinforcements occur in this process which motivate and inspire, discipline and direct, enhance self-image, and foster belief that the individual can take control of their search for employment.

A second limitation is that this type of job search training is not appropriate for everyone. Some participants, for whatever reasons, fail to show up for the first session while others drop out after only a few meetings; in some instances, because the required level of effort is demanding. Self-Directed Job Search is primarily for those who: (1) do not

have deep social/psychological problems; (2) seek jobs for which they have skills or the potential of learning those skills; (3) want employment. Fortunately, a majority of the CETA eligible population meet these requirements.

Thirdly, these programs do not provide an in-depth vocational assessment of the participants. Generally, very little time is devoted to extensive discussion of which set of skills is best matched with specified occupational groupings. However, these programs have the participants analyze their past employment and current skills or aptitudes which can be delineated on a functional resume and used in job search. For most participants, comprehensive vocational assessment is not an issue; they know what work they have done in the past and have a general idea of what kind of work they would like.

Fourthly, there are a variety of practical problems associated with a new undertaking. Space and equipment must be procured; telephones have to be installed; materials not ordinarily used in job search must be obtained; staff must be secured and trained; financial systems must be put in place. All of this takes both time and money. Programs should anticipate weak results until staff have acquired some practical experience in conducting Self-Directed Job Search.

Finally, there are problems which staff encounter beyond ordinary logistical matters. Although the general outline of Self-Directed Job Search is cognitively easy to grasp, the emotional intensity involved in actually running a program is immense. Staff "burn-out" is a very real factor. Thus, it is prudent to plan a rotation system for group leaders. PICs or prime sponsors which elect to run this activity with their own staff should select personnel who: (1) want to do it; (2) have a penchant for hard work; (3) have the ability to see the positive side of things.

Despite these difficulties, Self-Directed Job Search has the potential of addressing several aspects of the unemployment problem. It can put people to work and, to some extent, provide a sense of self-sufficiency. By putting people to work promptly, it can reduce welfare and unemployment insurance payments, and increase tax revenues. In addition, it offers a useful complement to conventional placement procedures.





Observation is not dictated by the impartial facts.
It selects and discards, and what it retains is rearranged in a subjective order of prominence. We have to rescue the facts in the discard, and we have to discard the order of prominence which is itself a fact of observation.



A SELECTED BIBL!OGRAPHY ON JOB SEARCH

Within the past five years, the market has been flooded by publications dealing with job search, career change, and the various facets related to each. This no doubt is due to volatile economic times and advancing technology which make job security more a sincere hope of the worker than a fact on which one can depend. Employees are faced with either the reality or the possibility of having to secure employment, perhaps in different areas of endeavor, several times throughout their life. Thus, there is a ready market for books which share with individuals the strategies, steps, pitfalls, and procedures of self-directed job search. In a word, they offer hope for a successful transition to meaningful employment.

Books are written for those who read, an obvious truism, but one which needs repeating to underline the fact that publications on job search are not written for the "typical" (stereotyped) CETA eligible person. They are written for engineers, librarians, college professors, liberal arts graduates, or almost any identifiable group who may have difficulty obtaining employment; that is, any identifiable group which typically reads books. One does not find publications for those groups, who, though out of work frequently, are not generally regarded as readers.

During this decade we will undoubtedly witness the proliferation of another type of publication on job search; that is, publications which purport to teach individuals how to train other people to undertake their own job search. This is a virtual certainty in the area of employment and training programs given recent legislative changes and/or proposals

for new policy initiatives. With some degree of reasonableness, one might even opine that the Employment Service will alter its traditional modus operandi of the job developer to that of the job search facilitator in which clients are taught to do their own employment search. (Interview developer might be a more accurate title than job developer for what actually happens.) Knowing how to find one's own employment and knowing how to structure effective training to teach others these skills, though related, are two entirely different activities.

The publications reviewed in this bibliography, with one exception, deal with the various facets of job search rather than with job search training. They provide the content of the training without addressing the matter of procedures and techniques for the training. They deal, in other words, with the cognitive aspects of a self-directed job search effort.

Additional information on job search materials and programs may be obtained from the Private Sector Initiative Program Clearinghouse. The Clearinghouse, operated by the National Alliance of Business under the contract with the U.S. Department of Labor, provides information services to human resource professionals engaged in the design, development, and delivery of employment and training programs. Clearinghouse staff collect, research, and synthesize relevant information in response to specific requests or for publication in Clearinghouse products. For further information, contact:

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A Selected Biblography on Job Search⁸

Lou Albee, Job Hunting After Forty. New York: Arco Publishing Company, 1970.

The job-hunter over 40 is often in a particularly difficult situation. Only 20% manage to obtain a new job at the same or higher level than their last employment. What is particularly useful about Albee's book is his ability to communicate the feel of the frustrations, family problems and employment pitfalls involved. Job hunting is the world's loneliest business. Albee has some helpful comments on the part which can be played by a 40+ club in dealing with this loneliness.

This is one of the few books containing a detailed and positive discussion of how to get the whole family involved in the job hunt, and why this is critical. The book as a whole has a healthy realism that comes from personal experience as well as observation. There are some excellent discussions of how to "read" an interviewer, the dangers of being offered a position which the employer knows will disappear in a coming merger, and the particular problems of reporting to someone considerably younger than oneself.

While much of the materials in this useful little book is obviously of particular interest to the older Job-Seeker, there is enough here to make worthwhile reading for the "potentially employed" of any age.

Nathan Azrin and Victoria Besalel, Job Club Counselor's Manual. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1980.

The job-seeking approach described in this book was developed under rigorous scientific evaluation using a statistically comparable control group. The book is a detailed description of the Job Club method, together with the conceptual basis for it (behaviorism) and standardized forms for use in a structured sequence of job-seeking activities.

The book is divided into three sections. The first provides information and procedures necessary for establishing and putting into operation a job finding group. Readers should find the 33 procedures/activities which constitute the principal strategy helpful and thought provoking. The detailed description, which in fact is greatly simplified and brief (as noted by the authors), should be illuminating for one unfamiliar with self-directed job search. Section two provides a behaviorist view of the hiring process, establishes the conceptual framework, and discusses the effectiveness of the Job Club. The remaining Section contains forms and charts useful for implementing this job search approach.

What Azrin and Besalel have done is to provide a descriptive outline of a job search approach for the economically disadvantaged. This is not to suggest that it is the only approach or that the description is adequate for actually implementing job search training for the economically disadvantaged. There is considerably more to implementing a job search training program than this book conveys, but these concerns are beyond the scope of the book. Thus, the book is more of an outline than it is a discussion. One needs to be very clear about this before paying \$14.95 for the book. Still, the book does cover some very important operatives of an actual job search approach and provides relevant "worksheets" for participants.



Carl Boll, Executive Jobs Unlimited. New York: Macmillan, 1965.

Boll's approach is built around the "broadcast letter," a carefully constructed letter showing a potential employer (always the president of the firm) some key past accomplishments, and suggesting an interview if the firm has need of someone with this kind of experience. Boll suggests sending one to two hundred of these weekly.

Though the book is becoming dated in some ways, there is enough good advice in the book, based on years of experience, to make it worth reading. It is important to note, however, that Boll's approach is oriented almost entirely to finding the same kind of job as one has held in the past. There is little in his approach to help the person who is willing to re-think just what position would really be most consistent with his or her skills and temperament, even if the result of that rethinking would be a career change.

Richard Bolles, What Color is Your Parachute? Berkeley: Ten Speed Press, 1980.

This book is a must for anyone engaged in job search!

Bolles' view is this: You must decide exactly what you want to do, where you want to do it, through your own research and personal survey; and you must then research the organization that interests you at great length until you are ready to approach the one individual in the organization who has the power to hire you. This will take three to nine months of full time work. The first lesson is that there are no shortcuts.

Involved here are really two explorations. The first is of the self, the core of one's life, the constant thread, the skills and personality traits that have been part of everything you have done. Bolles gives a selection of exercises to help in this exploration. Then the search turns to the occupation or occupations where your unique combination of temperament and aptitudes would be best matched to the demands of the job.

Many readers of Bolles' book may feel that this approach demands too much, is too idealistic. It certainly can be questioned whether the average person can simply read the book and follow its directions without help. Nonetheless, this book is well written, addresses a very real problem and suggests a practical solution. Though it should be read in context with some of the other key works described in this bibliography, it is considered by many to be the best single introduction to life/work planning in print.

John Crystal and Richard Bolles, Where Do I Go From Here With My Life? New York: Seabury Press, 1974.

Beginning in 1969, Richard Bolles (financed by United Ministries in Higher Education, a coalition of ten major Protestant denominations) spent two years and traveled 60,000 miles in order to conduct a thorough review of available systems purporting to help individuals find appropriate employment. Bolles concluded that the process used by John Crystal was the most comprehensive, systematic and effective approach to aiding occupational decision making and job hunting.

This is an extremely difficult book to read. In the usual sense it is not a book at all. Each double-page of the text is divided into four columns: two are directed at the student, who is striving to define a functional goal and an organizational goal (what do I want to do and where do I want to do it?); another column is advice for a counselor who is working with individuals; the final column gives directions to the instructor presenting the process to a group. At the bottom of each page is printed, "Not to be taught to others until the instructor has first taken the course himself."

What has been done here, perhaps as well as it can be, is to reduce the dynamic process of self-discovery and job exploration which Crystal has evolved to the printed page. Plowing through all this probably will be too much for the individual job-seeker. Anyone seriously interested in teaching or counseling in the area, however, ought to make the effort.



Bernard Haldane, How To Make A Habit of Success. Washington, D.C.: Acropolis books, 1975.

The author, Bernard Haldane, is the founding father of modern job counseling, and most of the other leaders in the field (John Crystal or Richard Irish, for example) either worked for him or borrowed his key ideas. Haldane began his work after World War II, helping veterans get jobs, and since that time has worked with tens of thousands of individuals; his agency (Haldane Associates) is found today in most major cities.

At the heart of Haldane's approach is one guiding principle: you will only find the right job by concentrating on your successes. It is by analyzing achievement that we come to know ourselves, because achievements are a blend of aptitude, values, even instinct; the factors that lead to success on the job. The key to learn one's strengths and build on them, and not to worry about weaknesses.

What counts, as Haldane sees it, is not job security (a myth in a time of rapid change) but ability security. Not just abilities possessed, but abilities realized and effectively communicated.

Bernard Haldane, Jean Haldane, and Lowell Martin, Job Power Now! Washington, D.C.: Acropolis Books, 1976.

This book is intended for the young job seeker (age 16-20). Written in simple, direct language, with many examples, it takes the reader through the skills identification process, shows how to make up a "Job Power Report" (a simple skills resume), and how to get "R and R interviews" to be remembered and recommended. Haldane recommends the formation of a Job Co-Op to share research on job opportunities and to provide social and emotional support during the job-search process. There are examples of what to ask and say during "R and R interviews", and also a section on how to handle personnel departments, job interviews, and pay negotiations.

This book is well written, and applies the Haldane approach well to younger persons with little or no prior work experience. A good argument is given for skill identification as the key to job change in a rapidly changing economy, and for the importance of goal setting.

Richard K. Irish, Go Hire Yourself An Employer. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday Anchor, 1978.

This is a book about finding, keeping and growing on a job. Not just any job: Irish is interested in the "judgement job", where the incumbent is paid for the quality of decision-making.

What makes this book so useful is that Irish has learned, and practiced, all the essential lessons: reviewing one's past achievements to identify the key "flair factors"; interviewing for information to learn everything about a potential position from job titles to salary levels to the "feel" of different organizations; how to put together a resume that really communicates who you are and what you can do.

The key to the whole process is the interview. When all is said and done, people are hired because the person in charge likes them. Irish has a sense of the dynamics of a good interview: the importance of humor, of looking the other person in the eye and communicating effectiveness; and above all, of the importance of listening.

There are observations on "job shock" experienced when changing careers; on the value of writing your own obituary to get a sense of your deepest values; list of typical questions asked by employers. Beyond all this specific information, however, there is a vision of what it means to have the *right* job and consistent ability to get to the heart of what is involved in getting it.



Tom Jackson, Guerilla Tactics in the Job Market. New York: Bantam Books, 1978.

This book presents an excellent overview of the job research/job choice/job search process. It is well written, and presents a good balance of research data, practical examples and sources of additional information. Jackson has a good sense of the need to find a job that fits the person doing it. He also knows that this kind of match takes time.

The book presents specific things to be done. The first tasks are designed to increase self-knowledge. Then follow a series of tasks that involve the reader (the doer!) in a serious research process, probing our complex economy for a job which is the best match to the skills, needs and temperamental qualities of the job-seeker.

Then there follows the actual job hunt. Jackson urges that the universal hiring rule be kept in mind: "Any employer will hire any applicant so long as he or she is convinced that it will bring more value than it costs." Hence, the need to determine who has the power to hire, and to communicate to that person what skills one has to offer and what problems one can solve.

Jackson has some shrewd observations on just what makes an interview either a success or a disaster. He knows the person being interviewed must be able to handle at least five key questions: What are your strongest abilities? How do your skills relate to our needs? What are you looking for in a job? What would you like to know about us? Why should we hire you?

Richard Lathrop, Who's Hiring Who. Berkeley: Ten Speed Press, 1977.

The aim of this book says the author, is to double the reader's prospects for finding a desireable job. Whether it will do that or not, it should certainly be a significant help.

The greatest strength of the book is its detailed explanation of how to prepare a good resume (or, as Lathrop prefers to call it, a "qualifications brief"). Lathrop explains what to put in a resume and why. There are a whole series of examples given, covering individuals from high school dropouts to top management candidates. The qualifications brief is discussed in the context of the importance of exploring oneself for exploring the job market.

This book is outstanding in its presentation of how to prepare a resume, and does it in the overall context of a sound philosophy of job identification and pursuit. It is essential reading for anyone seriously interested in effective approaches to job-finding.

H. Anthony Medley, Sweaty Palms: The Neglected Art of Being Interviewed. Belmont, California: Lifetime Learning Publications, 1978.

H. Anthony Medley is a California lawyer who owns and operates a service for law firms throughout the United States which provides them with videotaped interviews with graduates of major law schools. Operating this business has provided Medley with a range of opportunities to observe law graduates being interviewed. Many of them, after the interview, would ask for his help in interviewing well. This book resulted.

There is nothing startling in the advice he offers, but the advice itself is good, and anyone who was going to an interview would find the book a good review. The key to a good interview is preparation. Medley outlines some of the areas that need to be investigated before the interview. He distinguishes carefully between the screening interview by someone in personnel (give them the objective information they need



and say as little as possible beyond that) and the selection interview by the person for whom you will be working (here is where that mix of homework, enthusiasm and personality either clicks or it doesn't).

The second half of the book contains a useful discussion of questions that may and may not be legally asked. Finally, appendices list commonly asked interview questions, evaluation factors used by interviewers, and questions often asked when checking references.

David Noer, How to Beat The Employment Game, Radnor, Pennsylvania: Chilton Book Company, 1975.

This is an irreverent, racy account of the folkways and lunacies of the personnel process, written by a professional recruiter. Though it has some suggestions which might help the reader to get a job, its greatest strength lies in explaining some of anomalies and inconsistencies encountered during a job search.

There are a great many reasons, for example, why a company may wish to advertise jobs which do not exist (to impress the public with the growth prospects of the company, to camouflage a coming lay-off, to gather salary data from the resumes, and many others). There are the tricks of the employment agency trade (send a job applicant to a tough interviewer for a job he/she will not possibly be offered in order to crush his/her ego, so he/she will then accept a lower level job and the agency can get its fee). Particularly interesting is Noer's description of the inherent conflicts during hiring between the line supervisor, the compensation man, the recruiter and the manpower developer, and why the dynamics of their interactions may delay and change the terms of a job offer.

Also very useful is Noer's discussion of resumes and interviews. Resumes, says Noers, should tantalize rather than satisfy. If sent in answer to an ad, they must use the same wording as the ad to get through the first screening. An experienced recruiter spends about 30 seconds on a resume, looking for three things: How much does she/he make? What kind of experience does he/she have? Will one or two enable him/her to fit in?

Typical interviewing situations are described at length, and there is a useful discussion of the psychological state of the interviewer, who must deal successively with a whole series of people.

This is a fun book, and it has some useful comments, particularly for the job-seeker who is aiming for private industry rather than the public sector. If nothing else, it should give the reader a better sense of what he/she is getting into.

Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1978-1979 Edition. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

Published every other year by the Department of Labor, this is a standard reference volume which lists key information about 300 occupations in 35 major industries. Each write-up contains data on the nature of the work, places of employment, training and other qualifications needed, possibilities for advancement, future employment outlooks, earnings and working conditions, and sources of additional information. The latter reference is usually a particularly good place to begin gathering facts, and a source of informational interviews and referrals. This volume is the proper place to begin when seeking information on a possible career choice.



NOTES

¹Charles Hoffman is founder of the Self-Directed Placement Corporation of San Diego, California.

²"Self-Directed Job Search" is the terminology used by PSIP to describe certain types of job search efforts in order to distinguish them from conventional job search approaches.

³For a discussion of other programs, see Robert G. Wegmann's excellent article, "Job-Search Assistance: A Review," Journal of Employment Counseling, (December, 1979), 197-226. I am indebted to Dr. Wegmann for sharing with me his insights and the results of his extensive research on job search training.

⁴I wish to thank Albert F. Cullen and Joseph V. Fischer for information relating to the Job Factory.

⁶"The Job Finding Club as a Method for Obtaining Employment for Welfare-Eligible Clients: Demonstration, Evaluation and Counselor Training." Final Report to the U.S. Department of Labor. Grant No. 51-17-76-04, page 13. Information on the Job Finding Club is derived from this report, and from Robert A. Philip, Director, National Office of Program Development, Carbondale, Illinois.

⁶I wish to thank Patricia Gahl, Job Club Manager, of the Work Assistance Program for providing this information.

Letter of April 29, 1977, from Joseph V. Fischer to Bart F. Kennedy.

⁸The biblography has been adapted from an unpublished annotated job search biblography by Dr. Robert G. Wegmann, Professor, University of Houston at Clear Lake City.



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